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ABSTRACT

This handbook contains brief essays concerning aspects of reading and reading skills, activities designed to promote those skills, and biographies of reading specialists. The first section of the handbook discusses reading readiness, word recognition, word analysis, word meaning, comprehension, and content area reading. After discussion of each aspect of reading, the handbook provides activities designed for that aspect. The second section of the handbook includes one-page biographies of Roach Van Allen, Emmett Betts, Jeanne Chall, Theodore Clymer, Roger Farr, Arthur Heilman, Bill Martin, Mary Constance McCullough, John Money, Francis Robinson, Nila Banton Smith, James Trelease, and Evelyn Wood. Appendixes offer a reading teacher evaluation form, a list of reading materials for multicultural children, a list of professional journals and books, a list of reading supplementary materials, general and diagnostic reading tests, suggestions for content area teachers, and the Fry readability graph. (RS)

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Reading Consultant's Handbook

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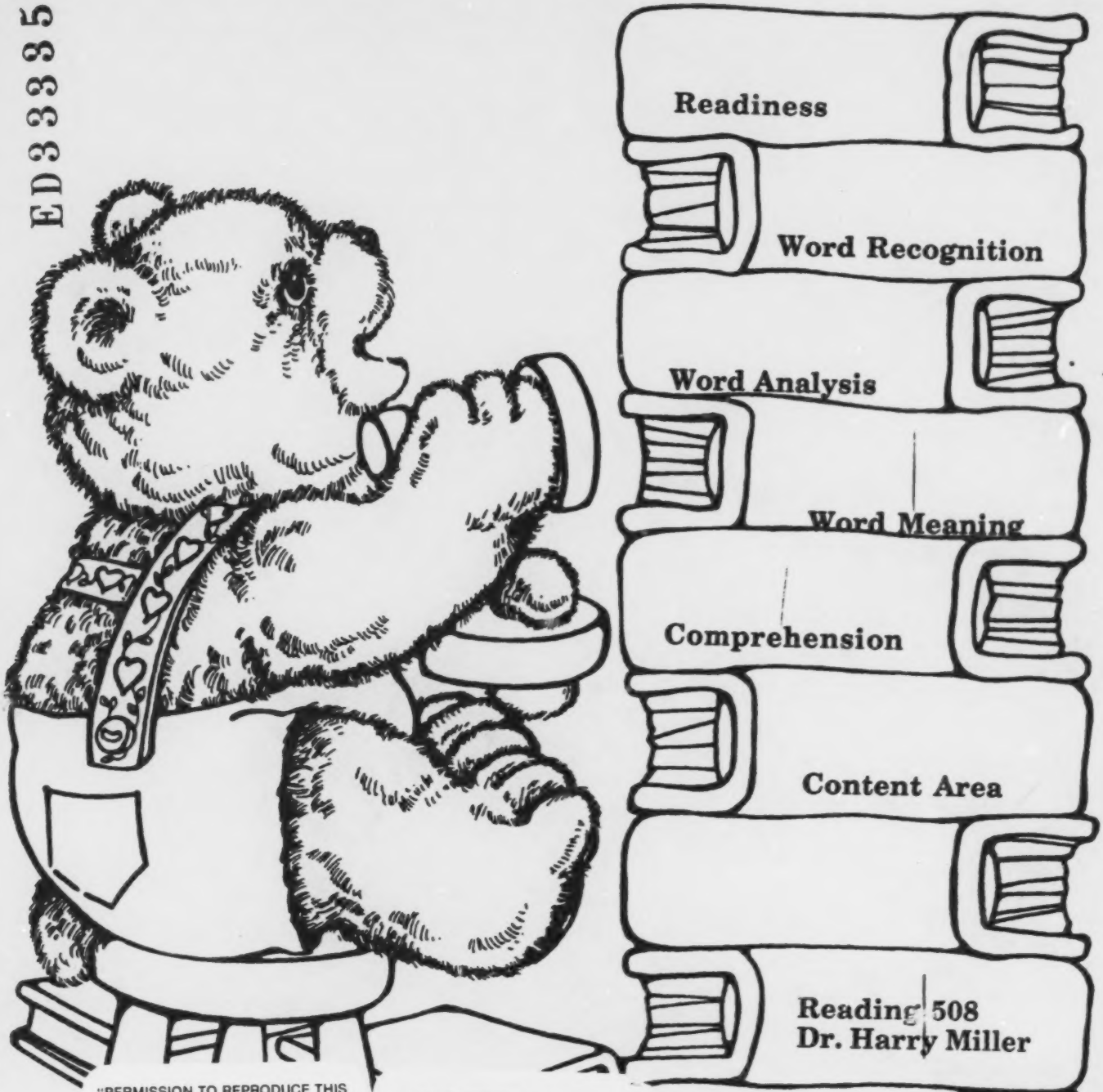

Reading 508
Dr. Harry Miller

July 10 - 30, 1991

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And so to completely analyze what we do when we read would almost be the acme of a psychologist's achievements, for it would be to describe very many of the most intricate workings of the human mind, as well as to unravel the tangled story of the most remarkable specific performance that civilization has learned in all its history.

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Compliments of
The Reading Laboratory
University of Pittsburgh

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Reading Skills

Reading Readiness

Reading is one of the most basic and talked about skills. Most authorities do not believe there is a set age at which children usually begin to read. A lot of intelligent students do not begin to read until they are in the first grade or sometimes even the second grade. However, many children are introduced to reading at a really early age. These kids are read to, taught to identify and name letters and words, and encouraged to print, spell, and use printed labels in their drawings. Activities such as these are usually done in preschool and kindergarten programs. Early exposure is directly related to later reading. The preschool and kindergarten teachers should not follow a rigid reading program, but they should follow a curriculum that uses less formal approaches to reading. The best reading readiness consists of giving children experiences in the real world, materials to play out those experiences, and discussions that help them understand these experiences (Galinsky, 1988). An environment that consists of opportunities for the small child to listen, speak, "write", and be read to is necessary for these youngsters.

Most children do learn to read sooner or later, and learn it more or less well. Yet only a minority--albeit fortunately a sizable one--delight in reading, and later, all through their lives, derive great bene-

fits from it. There are too many for whom reading and what it has to offer is an experience they prefer to avoid. These are often children whose initial and pursuant experiences with reading were not ones in which they were able to involve themselves personally. On the contrary, reading was experienced as an essentially passive procedure of mere recognition of letters, words, and sentences that remained devoid of any deeper meaning (Bettelheim and Zelan, 1981). David Elkind, Professor of Child Study and noted author, is concerned about the child who has not appreciated fully the richness of childhood. Children who are taught reading before they are ready fall into this category. These kids can often recite the alphabet but are unable to comprehend the significance of the letters. Some youngsters who have been forced to read at an early age may seem to be ahead of their peers initially; however, those who have had a fulfilled, diverse language experience catch up and usually become better readers. When children begin as avid, willing readers, reading usually continues to be a lasting pastime.

The debate over the importance of teaching phonics to beginning readers is alive and well. Marilyn Jager Adams is a disciple of the phonics approach to teaching reading. She believes that phonics is very important for the students who have never been introduced to books. But she quickly admits the difficulty of teaching these

symbols and rules to this group because generally they are unfamiliar with the necessary basic reading concepts. Adams strongly advocates giving beginning readers direct instruction in identifying letters and syllables. Most reading authorities agree that the teaching of phonics in limited dosage by the preschool or kindergarten teacher is not harmful. For parents who wonder about the teaching of phonics to their three-year-olds, a far more effective approach is to continue exposing children to books and storytelling and discussing the stories (Galinsky, 1988).

Most schools have some form of assessing the readiness for reading of children entering school. These assessments, called Reading Readiness Tests, are usually made toward the end of kindergarten or at the beginning of grade one; most five-and/or six-year-old children, therefore, will be evaluated as to their capability for starting successfully in a reading program (Boegehold, 1984). Some of the most commonly used readiness tests are: Metropolitan Readiness Test, Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test, and Murphy Durrell Reading Readiness Analysis. A teacher must be extremely careful when administering evaluations. One shortcoming of a number of evaluations is that they look at one part of a student's abilities instead of the whole child. The best assessment instrument allows the student to meet with the teacher on a one-to-one basis. The teacher is able to observe the child's fine motor development, how she holds and uses her pencil,

her comprehension abilities, and her reasoning ability. Another problem is culturally bias tests. A child seldom does well on an evaluation that is normed for a group of people who are from a totally different background. Usually the results of assessments vary minutely from what is already apparent to the classroom teacher. Since she has worked directly with the children, she is aware of their capabilities. The bottom line here is that no single test should be used to evaluate or lock children in or out of programs (Oppenheim, 1989).

Formal reading is usually introduced in kindergarten; however, in a child-centered school, the approach to reading is not laced with dull textbook exercises, repeated lessons in letter names and sounds, and in matching and tracing. The curriculum and lessons are geared to fit the children's interests and abilities. Reading is taught, but the approach is less mundane. It flows from the rich, varied language experience of each child.

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Boegehold, B. (1984). Getting ready to read. New York: Ballantine Books.

Galinsky, E. (1988). The preschool years. New York: Times Books.

Oppenheim, J. (1989). The elementary school handbook. New York: Pantheon Books.

READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

Take a typical page in a phonics emphasis basal reader with a picture of an airplane. This is an airplane and it begins with the letter "a". "A" stands for the first sound in airplane. "A" stands for the first sound in acorn, Adam, at, and art.

You then can introduce a variety of activities to give the children experience with identifying the form of the letter "a" and the sound "a" makes and with associating the two.

Present each child with a small card with the letter "a" printed on it. You pronounce several words that start with the letter "a" and also other letters. The object is to quickly put their cards down if they hear a word that does not begin with the letter "a".

Another is to have the children trace with their finger the letter "a" as the teacher says words that begin with "a".

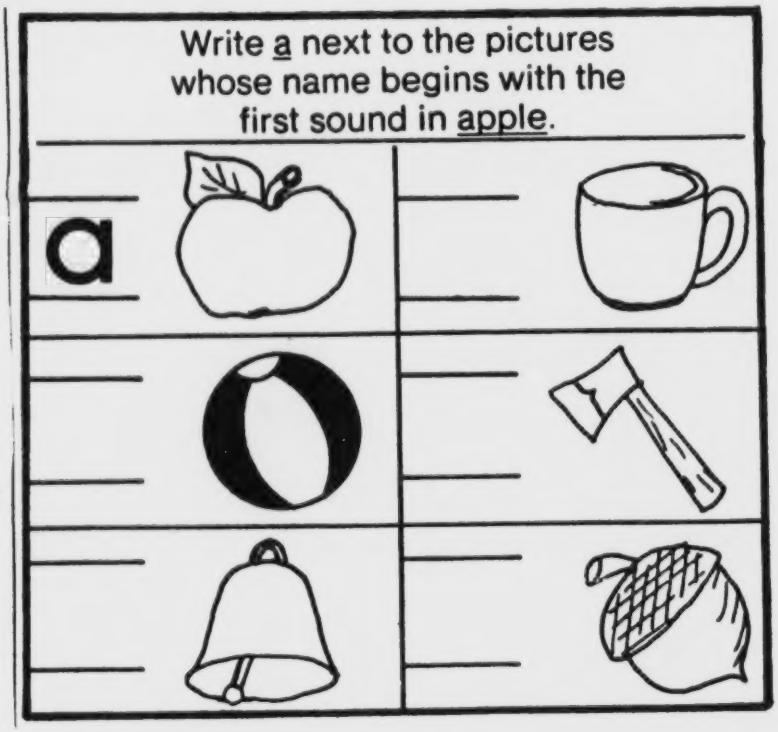
Have the children come to the blackboard and write the upper and lower case A's. Also have the children come to the blackboard and underline a set of words on the board that do not begin with "a", for example ate, cat, action, Tom, Alice, and over.

Another activity is to put circles around each "a" in the following set:

o a e a d c o

ACTIVITIES

Another activity is to print an "a" as in the illustration.



Tests of visual and auditory discrimination are often used in reading readiness. for example identical shapes among unfamiliar figures.(Figure1&2)

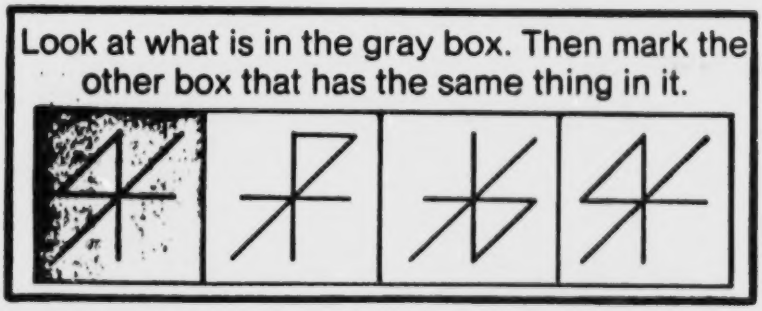


Figure 1

READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

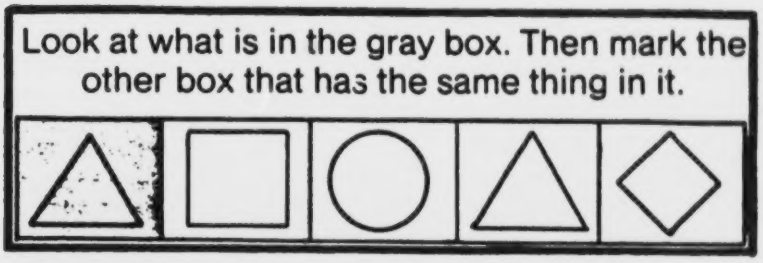


Figure 2

For auditory discrimination have the child match pictures of things that start with the same sound, for example (Figure3).

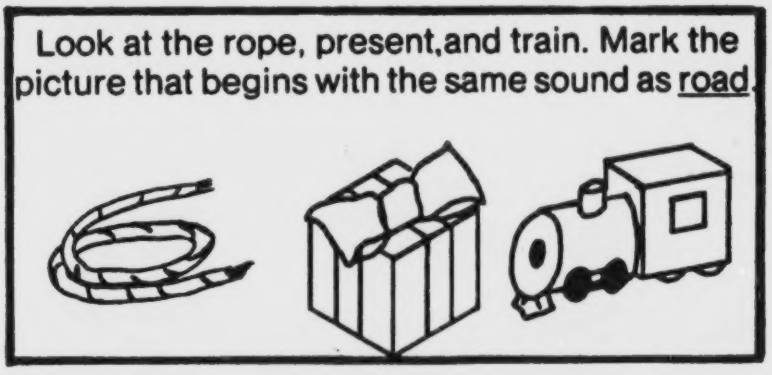
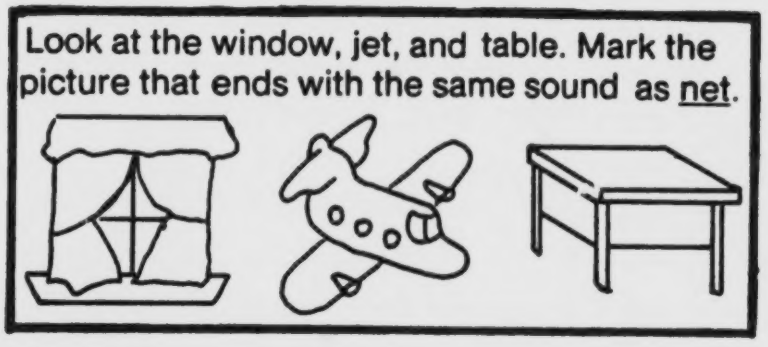


Figure 3

Another auditory discrimination is to identify pictures of things that rhyme.(Figure 4)



READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

Visual Discrimination-Word Shapes

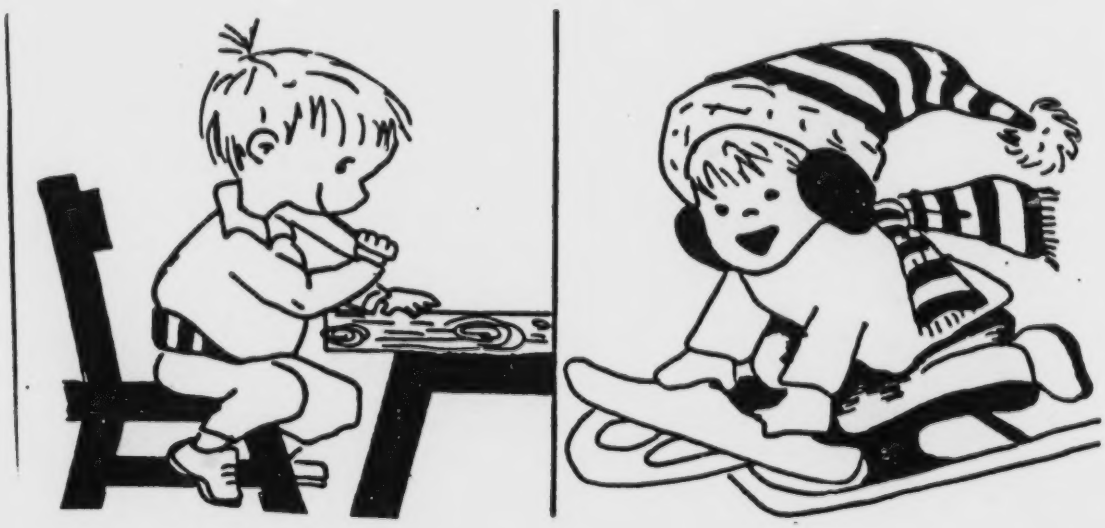
Directions: Draw a line connecting the same words in the square.

was	saw	dab	dab	yes	get
sam	was	bad	did	yes	sey

Auditory Perception-Knowledge

Directions: Listen carefully as I pronouce the following words. If the word is something to eat place an X under the boy eating. If the word is something with which you can play place an X under the boy playing.

Teacher: Pronounce these words; apple, ball, pie, ice cream, checkers, football, jump rope, wagon, chicken, and hotdog.



READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

Alphabet Knowledge involves the printed letters and words. For example the child is to draw a circle around the identical letters or identical words(Figures5&6) .

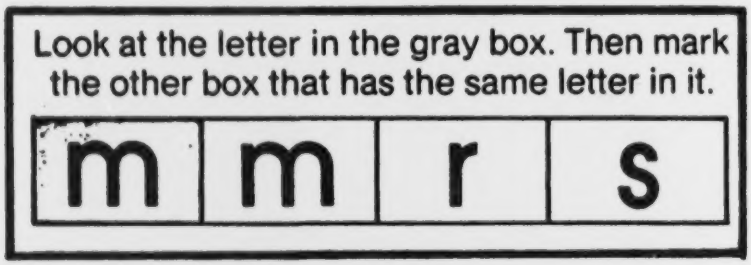


Figure 5

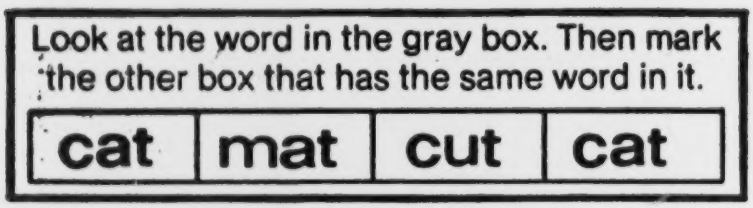
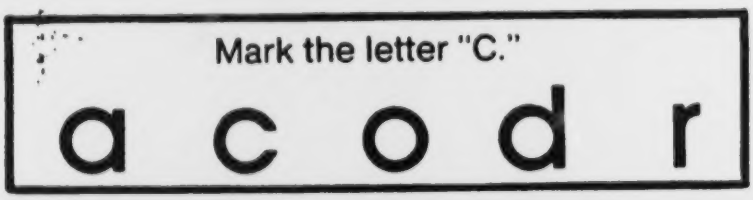
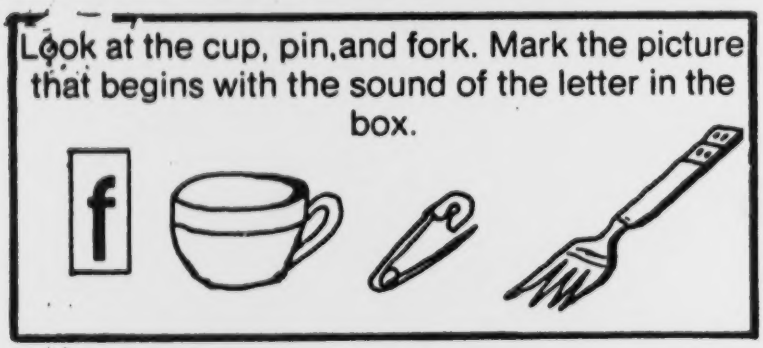


Figure 6

Another test is seen in (Figures 7,8&9)





READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

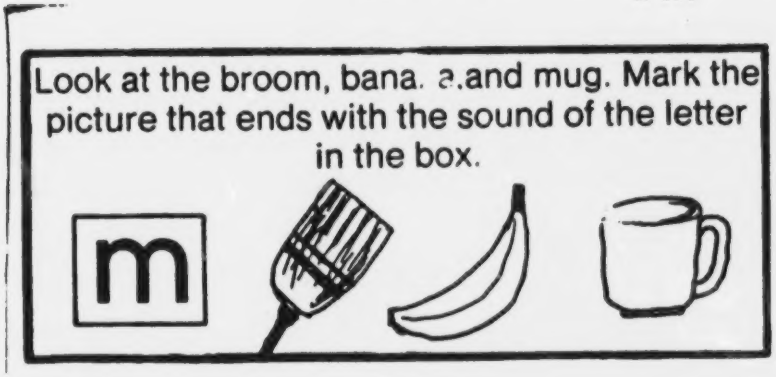


Figure9

Word Learning Test For example children are taught words such as walk,swim, and fly. The children are shown the words printed on the board,and the children say the words as the teacher points to them. Children are then tested on recognizing the words. as in (Figure10)

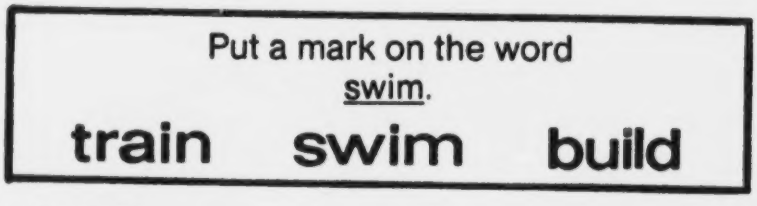


Figure10

Understanding oral language is another test. (Figures 11&12).

READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

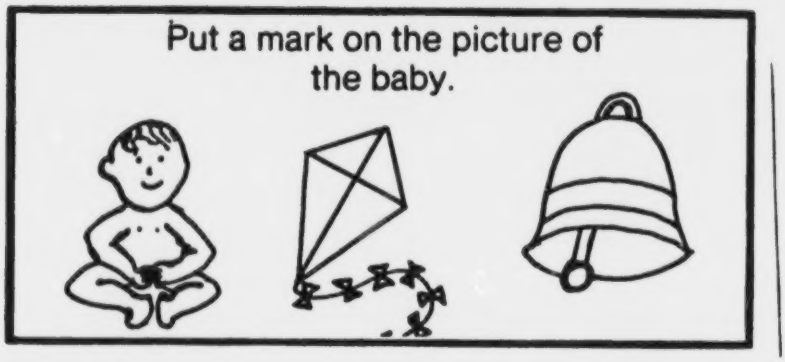


Figure11

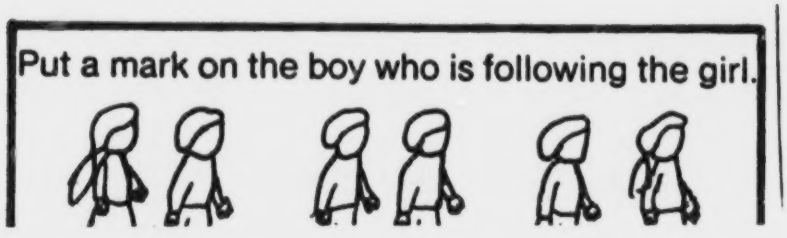


Figure12

Using Big Books involve children in the meaningful prediction of words and phrases by pausing occasionally as you read aloud to let them fill in the anticipated language. (for example Bobby wore a red shirt all_____ long, they will enjoy thinking of other words that fit in that space. Make your own Big Book!

After reading a story to the class, ask questions such as: Do you think this story is real or make-believe? Why do you think so? Could the things in this story really happen?

READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

Alphabet Knowledge

Directions: Fill in the missing letters in the blocks below.

A __ C	P Q __
D E __	G H __
V __ X	__ T U

Visual Discrimation

Directions: Look at the letter at the left. Circle the letters in each group that are the same.

P	R A F P
E	B L E F
b	k b m e

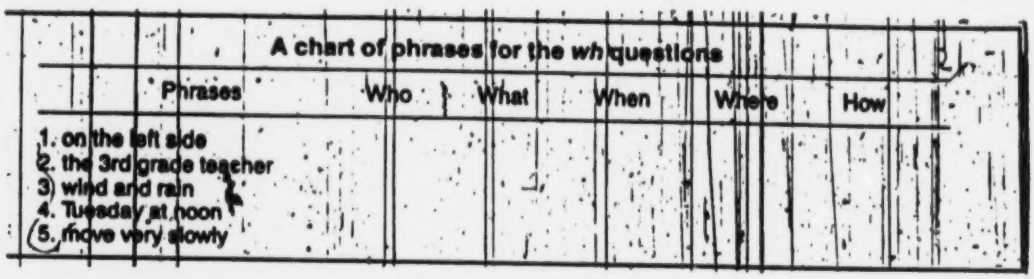
READING READINESS

ACTIVITIES

Show children pictures that contain inaccuracies. (for example a car with a square wheel). Highlights for Children, often contain pictures of this kind).

One student is chosen to be "It", and says to the class I am thinking of a country (or state or president, etc.) What (or who) is it? Students try to guess by asking questions that can be answer only by yes or no. The student who guesses correctly becomes "It".

Another activity make a chart of sentences or phrases telling who, what, when, where,and how. Students must check correct response. (Figure 13)



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Word Recognition

Word recognition or word identification is a learning process that successfully takes place when the student can pronounce the words. Word recognition is an ongoing process of development throughout an individual's life. Remember, word recognition is an instant identification. It does not mean that we analyze the word, but that we immediately pronounce the word (Miller and Clarke, 1984).

People with a great number of words in their word recognition vocabulary are usually good readers. This ability to recognize and pronounce words correctly determines our intelligence.

Students do not learn to recognize words by spelling the words alphabetically. Students do not learn to recognize words by writing the words a certain number of times.

However, there are procedures that enable students to recognize words. Students can recognize words by showing the relationship of words with pictures. This type of procedure is called rebus. We can also learn how to recognize words by learning how the words are shaped or outlined. This procedure of word recognition is configuration. Word shape or configuration will lose its effectiveness of word recognition when there are identical word shapes presented.

Context clues is another procedure that we use to teach word recognition. In this procedure, knowledge of words around the word to be identified helps the students identify the word.

Structural and phonetic analysis can be used to teach word recognition. Structural analysis is visual presentation of words. Words are broken down in recognizable units like prefixes, suffixes, and word stem.

On the otherhand, phonetic analysis is the association of sound with letters.

Poor readers who read at the beginning level can start with rebus reading in order to learn that reading is a form of communication in which we read from left to right and from top to bottom. (Mulchay and Samuels, 1987).

After the student has experienced reading from rebus, the student can move to the language experience chart where reading is taught using context clues. Once the student has been introduced to rebuses and context clues, the student can then be introduced to other skills for teaching word recognition.

S. Jay Samuels states that skills in word recognition take place in two stages: First there is the accuracy stage, which is often followed by the automatic stage. In order to become a fluent reader, word recognition must be both accurate and automatic. He defined automatic as a reduced amount of effort or energy required to recognize a word.

Samuels also said that when a person is accurate but not automatic at word recognition, a considerable amount of mental energy or effort is required, but when a person is both accurate and automatic, the recognition task can be done quickly, easily and with little effort or energy.

Samuels further explains that automatic word recognition is achieved only through extended practice. He also explained that when a teacher is teaching word recognition, like the music teacher teaching piano, or the athletic coach coaching figure skating or like any other skills being taught, there are three things that a coach or teacher can do to help a student develop fluency or automaticity: (a) instruct the students

so that they become accurate, (b) provide time to practice so that the skill becomes automatic, and (c) motivate the student so that they will stay on task long enough to become accurate and automatic.

In order to comprehend, mental energy and effort are required in the comprehension process. Mental energy is like money in the bank in the sense that the amount we have available is limited. Consequently, we must make the most of what little energy we have. Our goal is to spend as little energy or effort as possible on word recognition so that whatever is left can be spent on the comprehension process.

If we are expending great amounts of effort and energy on decoding and word recognition, then we will not have enough available for comprehension. But, if we can learn to decode words using less energy and effort, then what we save on the decoding process can be used on the all important goal of reading or getting meaning. In essence, the only way to become a fluent reader is by becoming automatic at decoding (Samuels, 1985).

The thing for us to remember is that the reader needs to develop confidence in word recognition. When the reader is independent in word recognition, he understands that he is constantly learning new words. He must continue to practice with his words. This continued practice assures his independence as a reader. The child will not progress in reading if he has as yet not gained independence in word recognition (Miller and Clark, 1984).

In summary, accuracy and automaticity of decoding skills are necessary but not sufficient conditions for skilled reading. To become a

skilled reader, in addition to learning word recognition skills to the level of automaticity, the child must learn numerous comprehension skills. Obviously, all of this requires a motivated learner, a skilled teacher, and lots of practice reading comfortable materials (Samuels 1985).

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Miller, Harry and Clarke, Kay. (1984). Teacher's PET for Teachers of Reading.

Samuels, S. Jay. (1988). Decoding and Automaticity: Helping poor readers become automatic at word recognition. The Reading Teacher. 41. 756-760.

WORD RECOGNITION ACTIVITIES

1. To teach name recognition, print students' names using initial capital letters on 3x5 cards. Students could: a) Find their own name from a central place. b) Play Hide 'n Seek by distributing the cards around the room. Each child finds his own name and sits by it. c) Play Postman by distributing cards as if they are letters. Names could be printed on actual envelopes.

2. Develop two sets of word cards to include pictures and their words for objects around the room. Use one set to label the objects around the room. After students are familiar with the words, remove the object pictures and provide the words on a smaller scale on the second set of cards. Direct the students to match the word cards.

3. Command cards can be made that allow students to carry out certain actions. Example: Stand. Raise hand. The length of command may vary according to capability of the children.

4. Allow students to develop an experience story about an interesting picture or field trip. Sentences can be broken down into word cards to play matching games and/or written on sentence strips for students to put the story back together again.

5. Label children's own paintings and drawings using words that relate to the picture. Some students may want to write their own symbols or words for the picture.

6. A fishing game can be made by printing one word on a

number of fish cut-outs and attaching a paper clip. The student uses a magnet on a string to "catch" a fish and may keep the fish after reading the word correctly.

7. A baseball or football game can be developed with the aide of a spinner. Make a large circle with words placed around the outside edge. The child spins a spinner which has been attached to the center with a paper fastener. The rules of baseball or football are followed as the child succeeds or fails in identifying the word. Example: If a child correctly names the word in baseball, he scores a run. If he fails, an out is recorded.

8. A Tic-tac-toe game can be created by placing one of nine practice words into each space on a blank Tic-tac-toe form. The game is played like Tic-tac-toe, but the player must acceptably pronounce the word in the square in order to place his x or o in that space.

9. Develop rebus sentences or stories by replacing words with pictures. Write the missing words on cards and after the story is read, have the child match the word cards with the pictures.

10. Color names can be recognized by directing students to color objects or pictures according to the color name labeled on the picture. Also, color word cards can be matched to the correct color on an object in the room.

11. Kinesthetic means of learning words can be completed by students. a) Form new words out of clay and allow children to read the words. b) Glue beans or other objects

to a word that has been printed on cardboard. Students read the word. c) With a sheet of acetate, cover a piece of oaktag on which a new word has been printed. Staple the acetate to secure the surface and allow students to trace the word with a crayon. The crayon can be wiped with a Kleenex.

12. Configuration activities can be developed. a) Students can draw lines to match words to their shapes. b) Words to be learned can be printed on a 3x5 card with their matching configuration shapes on separate cards. Mix the cards and direct students to match the words to their correct shape and read the words.

13. A concentration game can be played. Print pairs of fifteen words on oaktag cards. Mix the cards and place them face down on a table in rows. The child will turn over two cards. If the pair is a match, he may keep them. The child with more pairs wins the game.

14. Students can develop word recognition skills by using context clues. Provide an interesting sentence or paragraph in which certain words have been omitted. Students will select words from a list to complete the sentences or paragraph.

15. Bingo with word cards can be played by students. New words should be printed on twenty-five squares. The cards are not made identical. The rules of Bingo are followed as the teacher or a student calls out a word.

16. Students can match words with corresponding pictures by circling, labeling, or drawing lines to connect words

with pictures. Scenes can be created to include words for objects in the scene. Students match word cards with the words in the scene and correctly name the word.

17. Using an audio-cassette tape, pronounce a list of about twenty words. Print the same list of words on oaktag and laminate it. The student will circle the word as it is pronounced. Check to see how many words the student circled.

18. Students can create words using phonograms such as -og, -it, -at, and -ay. The activity could be made into a race to determine who can make the most words in a certain length of time.

19. Students can complete a cryptogram. Create a chart of letters containing hidden words. The student will draw a line around any word he recognizes. Any direction may be followed.

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WORD ANALYSIS

Word analysis is sometimes termed as word attack and is part of word recognition. It means the analyzing of a word in order to recognize it. This can be done through structural analysis, phonic analysis, or a combination of both. When attacking unknown words structural analysis should be used instead of phonic analysis, because structural analysis deals with units larger than single graphemes.

Structural analysis or visual analysis uses word parts to determine the meaning and pronunciation of unfamiliar words. Teachers can develop skill in using word-part clues in these (and other) ways: 1) they can help students spot easy, familiar root words in long words that appear to be unfamiliar, and 2) they can deliberately enrich their students' working stock of common word parts, (Thomas, 1980). Its subskills includes root words, affixes (suffixes and prefixes), compound words, contractions, inflected endings, and syllabication and accent. In the upper primary and intermediate grades affixes help readers add many new words to their vocabulary. When the student can visually assess the words and identify the root word and then add the prefix or the suffix or both and identify the word he has gained a level of independence in visual word analysis, (Miller and Clarke, 1984). Compound words are made up of two or more words that have been joined together to form a new word, however, the words must maintain their orignal

pronounciation when they are separated. Compound words can be introduced in the first grade. Contractions are the combination of two words with some letter or letters left out and replaced by an apostrophe. Contractions are introduced in the first or second grade. They should be presented by sight at first because beginning readers are generally unable to determine what part of the omitted word has been left out as the contraction was formed, (Donoghue, 1985). Inflected endings can add meanings to words by changing the word number, the word gender, the word tense, word comparitive, or possession. Syllabication and accent are introduced in the primary grades. The teaching of the accent is built upon the skills of syllabication. Readiness for the learning of syllabication involves the ability to hear syllables as pronunciation units, (Donoghue, 1985).

Phonics or auditory analysis is the sounding out of a word, analyzing the word to figure out the sounds the letters and letter combinations stand for, then blending the sounds together to form and recognize the word. To effectively use phonics, children must be able to perceive and distinguish the forty-four English phonemes as well as visually perceive and discriminate the twenty-six letters of the English alphabet. Most authorities agree that phonic analysis should not be used as an isolated word attack skill in order to be most effective, and that the consonant sounds should be presented before vowel sounds.

Researchers have debated the importance of this skill, also, much research has been conducted on the usefulness of word analysis. Some researchers see no need for phonic instruction because they feel children will learn their own rules for relating print to speech as they read meaningful text. Others feel that children should be taught phonics but only to the extent to which they can make sense out of such instruction. Still others feel that it may be the only way to become a skilled reader. When children cannot identify words accurately and automatically, they usually have difficulty reading fluently, which further hinders their ability to read with understanding the great variety of texts of increasing difficulty and to react to them with more advanced cognitive and affective responses, (Chall, 1989).

Word analysis is a part of word recognition and is important in developing independent readers. Though it is important it does have limitations because the logical analysis of a word can lead to the incorrect word pronounciation. Word analysis is not synonymous with reading and memorization of many rules should not be considered of greater significance than reading, (Miller and Clarke, 1984). However, once a reader uses analysis to identify a word, he can place it as one he now has in word recognition. The words he recognizes will continue to grow for reading is a life time chore.

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WORD ANALYSIS ACTIVITIES

1. To strengthen students ability with use of suffixes and prefixes build a word tree. The teacher prepares a large tree with several branches. She then presents the tree to the class with a root word placed on the trunk. The Objective is to have students add prefixes and suffixes to the root and write the new words on the branches.

2. On 3" X 5" cards, print derivative words, such as: untrue, thoughtless, greenish, friendly, action. On the reverse side, print the root words. Place the pile of cards in the center of a table, with the derivative words faceup. Instruct the first player to take a card, read the derived word and name the root word. If he is correct, he keeps the card; if he fails to name the root word, the card is returned to the bottom of the pile. The next player takes a turn, and the game ends when all the cards are used. The player with the most cards is the winner. (Spache, 1972, p. 121)

3. The fish game is designed to practice roots. Write root words on the bodies of several fish. Tails should be cut so they can be inserted into fish body and can slide in or out. Then write inflected ending on tails. The child will read the root word, pull the tail then read the inflected form.

4. To practice contractions the teacher prepares butterflies containing various contractions on the wings.

Each butterfly should have the same contraction on each wing. The teacher should also make two caterpillars for the two words which make the contraction. Display the butterflies on poster board. Put the caterpillars in a container. The children are to pick the two caterpillars that make the contraction and slide them behind the contraction.

5. This is a game to see how well the students can associate the vowel sound with the vowel letter which represents the sound. Students play in small groups. The leader can pronounce a word with a single vowel. The play- is to identify the sound of the vowel. If the student is correct he may move his marker forward one square on the gameboard, which should be made by the teacher prior to starting. The winner is the first player to reach stop.

6. Vowel concentration will help the students to understand that there are several different ways to make long vowel sounds and to review long and short vowel sounds. You will need a word card holder and 16 word cards (the words will contain 8 selected sounds). Place sixteen word cards face down in the card holder. Make two words for the eight sounds. Select a child to come and turn over two cards. If the words contain the same vowel sound, the pair is taken from the child and two more cards are chosen. If the words do not contain the same vowel sound, the child will turn the cards back over. If the child says that two words match, but they do not, simply turn the cards back over and another child takes a turn.

7. Harry the Elephant is a game using prefixes. Write the root word on the body of the elephant. Write the prefix on the trunk section. The child will read the root word, pull the trunk and then read the word with the prefix. The student should be asked to correctly use the word in a sentence. (Miller, 1985, p. 83)

8. For the prefix-suffix bingo game, write root words across the top of the card, and in the squares below write prefixes, suffixes or both. When a word is called, the player looks down the root word column to find the prefix or suffix needed. If the word contains both a prefix and a suffix, his space must contain both in order for him to claim the word. He then places a disk in that square. Regular bingo rules are followed. (Spache, 1972, p. 121)

9. On a sheet of oaktag draw a large circle. From the circle draw lines toward the edge of the paper. On these lines print a word part. Draw another circle with a printed word part and place on the oaktag. Mount on top of the oaktag with a brass paper fastener at the center. The youngster can rotate the outer circle. As each word becomes visible to the child he should pronounce it. (Miller, 1976, p. 33)

10. Write prefixes on a card strip and attach to the tile floor with scotch tape. Youngsters stay behind a line fifteen feet from the cards. Each child takes a turn throwing a beanbag to the prefixes. Where the beanbag stops, the child must give a word using that prefix. (Miller, 1976, p. 35)

11. For practice with syllabication students can play "Egg on the Wall". The teacher will make cards containing one, two, and three syllables. She will also have an egg carton, with a small slit cut in the top, and three humpty dumpty picture pockets. On number one, humpty is sitting on the wall. On number two, humpty is broken in two pieces and on number three he is in three pieces. A student will come and select cards from the egg carton. The student must tell how many syllables are in the word and where the word is divided. The correctly pronounced word is placed into the appropriate pocket.

12. Initial consonant blends substitution can be made for individual students to work and learn. Select a phonogram on a one-inch strip of construction paper. On another one-inch strip of construction paper print initial consonant blends that can be fused with the "ash" phonogram to make a word. Some examples are spl, cr, st, fl, and tr. Attach the initial blends to the phonogram with a brass fastener. Now the student can flip back each consonant blend card and make a word. (Miller, 1976, p. 28)

13. To practice compound words prepare a set of cards on which are printed compound words. With a single edged razor blade cut the cards in a unique manner by which the compound word will be separated. Now mix the cards and have the youngster work to reassemble the cards and make a compound word. (Miller, 1976, p. 32)

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According to Miller (1984), word meaning is called vocabulary. In vocabulary, there are categories that make up the unity of the way in which we define words. The categories are listening, speaking, reading, and writing vocabulary. Some researchers have conjugated the categories into one specific class or unit - the working vocabulary.

Of the four categories, listening appears to be the largest. When listening to the oral language, word meaning can be formulated by the inflection of the speaker. Children who are engaged in more wholesome experiences with adults tend to have greater vocabularies (Miller, 1984).

The speaking vocabulary is the way in which we verbally express ourselves. As a result, we inform the listener a great deal about ourselves such as our educational level, socio-economic status, and our profession (Miller, 1984).

The reading vocabulary is decoding the printed symbols. It is the most difficult because of the variation in word meaning. For example, the word "take" has twenty-two correlated words (Merriam-Webster Thesaurus, 1978). In the present case, we would have to rely on context skills.

According to Dunn (1989), Ambron is convinced that writing is an effective tool for learning, discovery, and vocabulary development.

Our working vocabulary is taking an unfamiliar word and making an association in our personal lives to denote a workable meaning. Eldridge (1990) states, "during the

1980's experience based vocabulary instruction was advocated by a variety of reading professionals. The advantages of such progress are that students interacted with the teacher, relate new words to their prior knowledge, develop their vocabularies through discussion, and become owners of the word - it is not just memorized for the test and then forgotten." The results indicated that there were a tremendous improvement in vocabulary. Children received a chance to utilize words in the form of hearing, discussing, and writing; in short, making it a part of their working vocabulary.

There are several interesting roads in which we interpret word meaning. When we are told to find the opposite of a word to denote a connection to its meaning, it is a form or strategy of decoding word meaning. In case of homonyms, Dunn (1989) states, "some students have difficulty with words having different meaning but similar pronunciations. Word series like pistil, pickerel, and pedicle; fetal, fecal, and fatal; or coelem, silique and ciliophora are formidable to students deficient in vocabulary skills."

Beside the use of homonyms, there are other strategies for decoding a word. Synonyms are words with similar meaning but different sounds. Heteronyms are words with different pronunciations (read/ read).

Knowing the derivative or the etymology of words can also provide a great deal of usage. Miller (1984) states, "so many of our English words have either Latin or Greek derivations. For instance, tele, a Latin tern meaning

far (telepone, television). Greek, auto (self) automatic; bio (life) biology. Etymology is simply the history of a word."

Vocabulary knowledge is one of the most critical elements of comprehension (DeSerres, 1990). Although there are several methods that enhance word meaning, meaning comes from the reader. As teachers we should select instructional methods that allow students to succeed (Eldridge, 1990).

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Word Meaning Activities

1. The children draw or cut pictures of various things out of a magazine. A series of charts are made, each chart is then labled with different headings, such as "Food We Eat," or "Our Favorite Animals." The children can then sort and classify the pictures, putting them on the correct charts. This activity can be done for the individual child by letting each child make their own charts, or individual dictionary of classified objects.

2. The following exercise is written on the board or on a chart. The students look at the first two words in each line, Then list two additional words which belong to the same category. They may use the dictionary or word lists in the back of their readers for help. (Spache, 1972 P. 140)

1. dress...shirt_____ _____
2. dog... horse____ ____
3. car... airplane ____ ____

3. This alphabetizing game could be used in Science when studing plants. Each player gives the name of a plant beginning with the letter A. The next player then has to think of another plant beginning with a B, and so on. Help may be given for letters such as Q,U,X, or Z.

4. To review vocabulary and idea classification, the following exercise may be written on large sheets of newsprint. The child reads the questions and illustrates possible answers. (Spache, 1972, P. 140)

What's the answer?
1. What is fun to ride in?
2. What is good to eat?

5. The child is given a list of words and follows two sets of directions. Example: Draw a ring around the things you wear. Put two lines under the things you do.

coat	shirt	dress
walk	play	shoes
swim	run	hat

(Spache,1972, P. 141)

6. Sheets of paper are labeled by classification headings. Each child maintains his own folder of topics to add to as new words are met in his independent reading. Headings would vary with pupils' work levels. These vocabulary sheets are very helpful during creative writing, to aid in spelling, and to increase descriptive writing.

color words	words that describe something
shape words	words that show how people feel

(Spache,1972, P. 135)

7. At the top of the sheet of oaktag the names or pictures of several kinds of stores (toy store, shoe store, clothing store). Under the name of each store, list some items you would buy there. Cut the list apart and put the entries in different envelopes. The children try to match the articles with the correct store headings. (Spache, 1972, P. 135)

8. Make two columns of proper and common nouns. Have students indicate whether each noun is a person, place, or thing.

Example:

1. Sally---person
2. cap---thing
3. Jacksonville---place

This could be made difficult by having students showing why, what, and where.

Example:

1. in the house---where
2. he was afraid---why
3. the dog---what

(Spache, 1972, P. 142-143)

9. Give each child a duplicated sheet containing ten rows of words, four words in each row. Each row of words should contain the names of such categories as colors, items of furniture, animals, or flowers. The teacher should give directions slowly, but only once. She will give progressively more involved directions for succeeding rows. To begin, she will say, "Circle the name of an item of furniture" in row one. Then, in row two, "Draw a line under the name of a color and mark an X through the name of an animal". (Spache, 1972, P. 143)

10. The column at the left gives the Greek word part. The middle column has the meaning of this part. In the column at the right write a word that has that word part.

philo	love	Philadelphia
derm	skin	_____
geo	earth	_____

(Miller, 1976, P.53)

11. ONOMATOPOEIA (words that say their sounds)
Some words in our language are derived from the sounds

they represent.

For instance, screech.

Try these with your students. Have the students add additional onomatopoeia to the list.

zap	pow	_____
crunch	bonk	_____
zip	plop	_____

(Miller, 1976, P. 53)

12. This game will help when working with Synonyms. Give the children some terms and let them see how many words they can list that will mean nearly the same.

For example:

run	hot
hasten	boil
hurry	broil
trot	sultry
dash	

(Miller, 1976, P. 42)

13. This activity will help with vocabulary word meaning. Prepare a set of words on 3 X 5 cards. Have the cards stacked before a group of children. The students draw a card from the top of the pile. The student then is asked to tell the meaning of the word and to use the word in a sentence.

(Miller, 1976, P.40)

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READING COMPREHENSION

Formulating a definition for reading would appear to be a simple task. However, one need only refer to Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1977) to realize that this is not the case. A multitude of definitions are listed there and a review of the literature about reading offers little help. However, "getting meaning from the printed or written symbol" does seem to adequately define the term. Comprehension also is multi-defined, but "the capacity for understanding fully' seems to encompass the meanings for this term. A combination of these two definitions would read something like "Getting meaning from the printed or written symbol and having the capacity to fully understand this meaning."

Although much has been written about reading comprehension in the last twenty years, theories defining the comprehension process, and strategies on how to teach it still arouse the interest of educators (Eldredge, 1988). Kletzien (1991) found that readers use only a few of the comprehension strategies that have been presented to them during 10 or 11 years of school. Are there skill hierarchies in reading comprehension? The question of whether or not there are discrete reading comprehension skills has long been a favorite topic of reading researchers (Reutzel and Hollingsworth, 1990). Their study found that the teaching of discrete comprehension skills resulted in equal gains for all reading comprehension skills assessed,

regardless of the particular skill taught. Reutzel and Hollingsworth recommended that when comprehension instruction is provided, it should focus on comprehending content selections rather than learning and practicing of isolated comprehension skills. This question of whether or not there are specific skills that can be taught and if there are, how can this best be accomplished, will continue to be the subject of much research and discussion.

In the history of research on reading there have been many studies developed over the years of the differences between the reading processes of good and poor readers and comprehenders (Vande Kopple, 1984). Before evaluations can be made about any differences, it is necessary to assess the comprehension skills of the readers. As any classroom teacher can verify, this can present problems. Researchers that have studied this problem also recognize the difficulties and the often unobtainable accurate results. The kinds of questions typically used to test and evaluate comprehension have long been a subject of concern for reading educators. These questions have been faulted for eliciting responses to text at cognitive levels no higher than literal recall and for ignoring affective responses to text (Smith, 1988). Incisive ways of diagnosing, describing, and remediating particular readers' comprehension problems must be developed. With time and practice, researchers should be able to develop tests that help teachers recognize weak comprehension skills. They

should also be able to develop exercises that strengthen students' control of these comprehension skills both individually and collectively (Vande Kopple, 1984).

Cox and Webre (1989) found that more often than not, students themselves can offer some insight and indication into the factors which are contributing to their comprehension difficulties. In most cases, students can evaluate their comprehension of a reading activity and know whether they understand it. The difficult part for the student is how and what to do about it when they do not understand the reading. This self evaluation is not an "all or none" skill that children have or do not have. Comprehension monitoring involves a set of critical reading skills that children need and can develop (Zabrucky and Ratner, 1990).

Although the ability to decode words in print will not assure good reading comprehension, good reading comprehension is not likely to occur without that ability (Eldredge, 1988). A common characteristic of poor readers is that they tend to be word-by-word readers. They tend to take so much time identifying the printed words that they forget many of the words identified at the beginning of a sentence by the time they get to the end. Another question often asked is whether silent or oral reading more effectively promotes good comprehension. Breznitz (1991) found a clear relationship between pupils' anxiety and their exhibition of oral and silent reading skills. For some

students, reading aloud in front of the teacher and classmates elicits anxiety. Silent reading is a more private endeavor and bouts of failure can go undetected outside the self. It is possible that this situation is most prominent in the first grade when reading skills have not yet stabilized (Breznitz, 1991).

Undoubtedly, reading comprehension is one of the key factors in our present day literacy problem. Research has shown that good readers seem to differ from poor readers in their understanding of what is read on the printed page. Educators have searched for ways to improve reading comprehension of slow readers as well as those with little or no reading difficulties (Castell, 1990). When the comprehension skills of a student are good, reading is fun. When they are not, reading becomes an arduous task.

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Reading Comprehension Activity #1

Plot A Characterization - MAIN DETAIL

OBJECTIVE: The student will identify character traits.

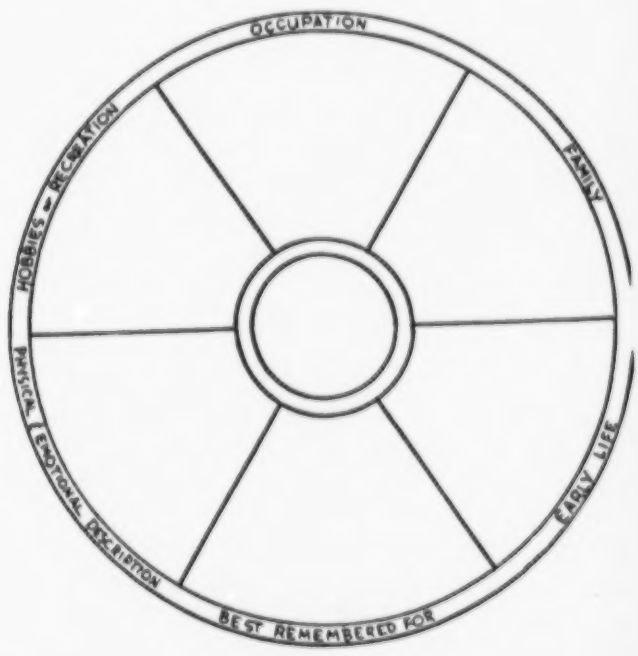
MATERIALS: A book (biography, autobiography)

"Plot a Characterization" worksheet

PORCEDURE: Each student selects a book that protrays one person's life and/or times.

DIRECTIONS:

1. Write events, words, phrases, descriptive sentences or other information about the person being characterized in each spoke of the wheel.
2. Fill in the center circle with words that describe the person's character.
3. Display copies of completed worksheets for discussion.



Write events, words, phrases, descriptive sentences or other information about the person being characterized in each spoke of the wheel. Then fill the center circle with words that describe the person's character.

Reading Comprehension Activity #2

Special News Watch - MAIN IDEA

OBJECTIVE: To identify the main idea.

MATERIALS: Newspaper bulletins

"Special News Watch" worksheet copies

PREPARATION: Reproduce copies of the "Special News Watch" worksheets.

DIRECTIONS:

1. Read each newspaper bulletin carefully.
2. Underline the important information that should be included in a special TV news flash.
3. Underline the single most important sentence twice.
4. Draw a circle around unnecessary sentences and phrases.
5. Rewrite the bulletin using as few words as possible.

SPECIAL NEWS WATCH

WEATHER BULLETIN

At 6 p.m. today, the United States Weather Bureau posted a special watch for the following states: Tennessee, Georgia, Florida, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, New York, Washington D.C., and parts of Pennsylvania and Delaware. Severe winds, heavy rainfall and electrical storms are predicted within the next twenty-four hours. As clouds build up and storm signals continue to develop off the East Coast, all area residents are advised to be alert for further news of storm warnings, flooding and a posted tornado watch. This storm appears to be similar in nature to last week's storm in the same area, and is expected to be equally severe.

SPECIAL NEWS FLASH

Reading Comprehension Activity #3

WHO - WHAT - WHEN - WHERE - WHY - HOW -- ORGANIZATION

OBJECTIVE: To help students understand the melody of the language and to derive meanings from words put together in phrases.

MATERIALS: card strips
pins
markers, pens
bulletin board

PROCEDURE: Headings such as Who, What, When, Where, Why and How can be placed on the bulletin board.

DIRECTIONS:
1. Several phrases for each category are written on cards and placed in a pocket at the bottom of the board.
2. As students read, they can make a list of phrases to be placed on cards and added under the headings.
3. An individual student or a small group can pin the phrases under the correct heading.

Sample Phrases

WHO
Greg's mother
Aunt Betty

WHAT
an open window
a black suit

WHEN
before it rained
at five till three

WHY
to get a hammer
to see a chief

HOW
in a rowboat
with a ball

WHERE
under the car
beside the soldier

Reading Comprehension Activity #4

Once over - SKIMMING

OBJECTIVE: The student will develop and use skimming skills.

MATERIALS: newspapers
grocery ads
pen

PROCEDURE: Teacher briefly explains skimming for information. Students will look in newspapers or other grocery ads for price items.

ACTIVITY:
1. Each student must find 10 grocery items.
2. Students then record the prices they find for those items in five different newspaper ads.
3. A list of comparative prices is charted by each student.
4. All charts are put on board, following a report to the class.

EXTENSIONS: Suggested topics: clothing, car prices, appliances, jewelry, sporting equipment, and so on.

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Content Area Reading

The goal of content area reading is to teach the student how to read independently in the different subject areas. For a student to maintain this goal, he must be taught specific reading skills of the content area. These skills include word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, word analysis, reading readiness, and special reading skills of that subject area. Reading in the content subject areas include the specific reading skills that are related to each of the content subjects. Some examples of a content subject area are mathematics, social studies, literature, science, health, physical education, home making, art, and music (Miller & Clarke, 1984).

Why is it important to begin early teaching of reading in the content areas? As teachers well know, subject area textbooks that supply information are more difficult to read. The special vocabulary used in the textbooks can be hard to pronounce and difficult to understand. Even familiar words are often used in unfamiliar ways. The rapid rate at which these unfamiliar ways. The rapid rate at which these unfamiliar word appear tend to compound the students' ability to comprehend the reading material in the subject area textbooks. Also, the reading material may go beyond what the students have experienced causing them to try to visualize and understand what is foreign to them. According to Spache, many graphic and visual aids appear in the textbooks and demand a different approach than word-by-word or line-by-line reading. Basic reading skills make almost no contribution to handling these new media (Spache, 1972). These problems make it necessary to begin early instruction of content area

reading.

How should we teach content area reading? There is no one prescription for teaching reading in the content areas, but a few suggestions should be followed because each subject area has its own unique reading skills. The teacher must make preparations to teach the subject area by considering the readability level; the reading objectives; selecting procedures for attaining these objectives; reviewing the material; consider the purpose for reading; and select the important content, vocabulary, and any symbols to be taught. Then, she should decide on the methods for teaching them.

Although authors provide aids for readers in the form of heading, subheading, graphics, definitions, examples, and summaries, they function as such only for readers who know enough to use them (Durkins, 1983). Given this information, it is essential to teach reading in the subject areas so students are able to retrieve whatever information is required for understanding relevant content. The following skills should be taught: (a) word recognition refers to the many words and symbols unique to the subject; (b) word meaning refers to the many terms that must be understood by the reader; (c) comprehension refers to the main idea, sequential order, chronological order, following directions, details, and cause and effect; (d) specific reading skills refer to unique reading skills in the subject such as tables, charts, graphs, and drawings; (e) word analysis refers to unlocking the unknown word by the structure of the word or by the sound of the word; and (f) reading readiness is the total development of the learner in many areas identified necessary to begin reading.

Let's look at a few suggestions revealed in the content area by

research. Researchers tress the importance of teachers reading to students everyday. When teachers read, it increases the students knowledge of the world. Some research suggest using cartoons and drawings to improve content reading. Humor makes the materials less threatening, and research has shown that it reduces student apprehension, promoting an attitude of self-confidence that result in increased comprehension (Nehiley, 1991). According to Myers in 1984, the writing-to-learn movement has stressed that writing, like reading, is a means of clarifying, refining, and extending one's internalization of content. Writing as well as reading therefore becomes a tool for acquiring content (McKenna & Robinson, 1990). There are numerous research articles and ideas for improving reading in the content areas. Teachers should be aware of this fact because content area instruction is essential for understanding.

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Spache, E.B. (1972). Reading activities for child involvement. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Activities Content Subject Area

Graphics - Map Reading

Objectives: To help the student understand how to read and interpret a map.

Time Needed: 20 - 25 minutes

Materials Needed: "National Geographic" map supplement
eight poster boards, 12" x 18"
clear contact paper glue
glue
felt tip pens

Preparation:

1. Locate an appropriate map from the "National Geographic" map supplement.
2. Cut the map to measure 9" x 12". Be sure to retain the legend and the most important features of the map.
3. Make seven copies of the map or prepare eight maps.
4. Glue the map to the poster board.
5. Prepare map reading questions and print on the poster board below the map. Cover the poster board with clear contact paper.

Sample Questions

1. The capital city of _____ is _____.
2. The largest seaport is _____.
3. Three rivers on this map are _____, _____, and _____.
4. The largest country on this map is _____.
5. The distance from _____ to _____ miles.
6. The highest elevation is _____.

7. The southern most city is _____.

8. The major highway passes through _____.

Directions:

1. Give your students a copy of the poster board with the map.

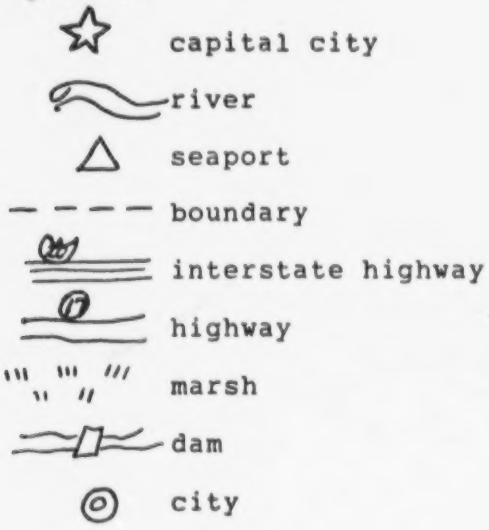
2. Have the students study the map and answer the questions.

Content Area

Graphics-"Identifying Map Symbols"

Directions:

1. On 24 white cards, make two sets of cards with twelve commonly used map symbols.
2. On 24 blue cards, make two sets of cards with meanings of the twelve map symbols.
3. Place the white and blue cards face down on the table.
4. Let a student choose one blue card and one white card. If the cards match (symbol and meaning), the student may keep the pair. If they do not match, turn the cards back over.
5. Use the following symbols:



Content Subject Area

Math--"Read the Symbols"

Objective: This activity will enable the student to master many symbols used in mathematics.

Time Needed: 15-20 minutes

Materials Needed: five pieces of oaktag
twenty plastic potato chip cartoon tops
coffee can
scissors
felt tip pen
glue

Mathematics Symbols

$>$ greater than

$<$ less than

$=$ equal

$\neq$ not equal to

$+$ plus

$-$ minus

Preparation:

1. Cut circles from the oaktag paper the same dimension as the plastic carton tops.
2. Print the list of mathematic symbols on the oaktag. Print the meanings on the reverse side.
3. Glue the oaktag circles to the carton tops.
4. Place the symbols in a coffee can.

Directions: 1. Have several students work as a group.

2. Ask one to select a circle from the coffee can and identify it. If the student is correct, the symbol may be kept.

3. The next student takes a turn and so.

Reference

Miller, H., Thompson, C., & Holloway, D. (1985). Teacher's Kalieidoscope of reading activities. Monroe, LA: NLU Graphic.

Biographies

Roach Van Allen

Roach Van Allen was born on September 24, 1917, in Lockney, Texas. He is the son of James Brice (a teacher) and Myrtle (Roach) Allen. He married Pauline Claryce Whitten on May 23, 1943. They had four children.

He received his B. A. from West Texas State University in 1938, and his Masters in 1941. In 1948, he received his Ed. D. from the University of Texas. He enjoys doing arts and crafts and music.

He started teaching in 1939. He was an elementary public school teacher from 1939-41, in Canyon Texas. From 1941-46, he served in the U.S. Army as a captain. He then became director of elementary education from 1949-53, in Harlingen, Texas. From there he became the public school director of curriculum in San Diego County (Calif.) in 1953-55. He then went to the University of Arizona, in Tucson as professor of elementary education from 1963 to the present.

Allen has written many articles as well as co-authored writings with his wife and others. He is also a contributor to reading conference yearbooks, and hundreds of articles published in journals and magazines.

Reference

Kinsmain, Clare D. & Tennenhouse, Mary Ann (Eds.). (1974). Contemporary authors. Detroit: Gale.

Emmett A. Betts

Betts was born, February 1, 1903, in Elkhart, Iowa. He was married to Thelma Marshall on May 24, 1924.

He received his B.S. degree from Des Moines (Iowa) University in 1925. Between 1928 and 1931, he obtained his M.S. and Ph.D. from the University of Iowa.

In the course of his education, Betts became the school vocational director of Orient, Iowa (1922-24); a school psychologist; and an elementary principal in Shakes Heights, Ohio (1925-29). His occupational roster was very prestigious. Betts opened and directed the Betts Reading Clinc in Haverford, Pennsylvania, until 1961.

Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties (with Mabel O'Donnell, 1936), Foundations of Reading Instruction (1946), and How to Teach Reading (1963) are only a few of his many books.

Betts was professionally active in many organizations, thus creating the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction (later, the International Reading Association).

Betts has championed the cause of reading instruction based on the reading levels and needs of children as opposed to a static curriculum. His accreditation in education have been recognized and honored over the years.

REFERENCE

Ohles, John (1978). Biographical dictionary of American educators. Greenwood Press Inc.

Dr. Jeanne Chall

Dr. Jeanne Sternlicht Chall was born in Poland, January 1, 1921. In 1946, she was married at the age of 25 to Leo P. Chall. Eighteen years later they were divorced in 1964. In 1941, she graduated cum laude with her B.B.A. from the City College now known as the City College of the City University of New York. She received her M.A. in 1947, and her Ph.D. in 1952, from the Ohio State University. Dr. Chall is currently a professor of education at Harvard University. She has been at Harvard since 1963. Her office is located in Larsen Hall, Harvard University, Appain Way, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 02138.

Dr. Chall has had an extensive career in education. She started out in New York at Columbia University, Institute of Psychological Research, as an assistant from 1943-1945. In the years 1945-1947, she served as a research assistant and from 1947-1949, she was a research associate instructor at the Ohio State University, in Columbus. From 1950-1954, she was an instructor at City College of the City University of New York in New York City. From an instructor she moved up to an assistant professor in 1954-1962, an associate professor in 1962-1964, and to professor of education in 1965. In 1963, she moved to Massachusetts and became a visiting associate professor for the School of Education at Harvard University. In 1965, she became a professor of education at Harvard. She is still serving in this position.

Dr. Chall is a member of many educational associations. From 1961-1965, she was a member of the board of directors of the International Reading Association. She was also a member of the board of directors of The Natioanl Society for the Study of Education. In 1962, she served

as the secretary-treasurer of the National Conference on Research in English and in 1965, she served as president. Dr. Chall is a member of Phi Lambda Theta, Beta Gamma Sigma, Phi Delta Kappa, and American Association of University Professors just to name a few.

Through her many years as an educator she has received many honors such as, the Distinguished Alumna Award, Ohio State University in 1970, and in 1979. She received a citation of merit from the International Reading Association. In 1979, she was named to the Re[illegible]ng Hall of Fame. In 1982, she received the Townsend Harris Medal, American Educational Research Association Award, the Edward L. Thorndike Award for Educational Psychology.

Dr. Chall is known for many of her writings such as, Learning to Read: The Great Debate, McGraw, 1967; Toward a Literate Socity, McGraw, 1975, and A Formula for Predictiing Readability with Edgar Dale in 1948. In 1956, she developed the Roswell - Chall Diagnostic Reading Test of Word Analysis Skills along with Florence G. Roswell. She has also contributed many articles to professional journals.

Reference

Evory, A., & Metzger, L. (Eds.). (1983). Contemporaty authors. Detroit: Gale Research Company.

THEODORE WILLIAM CLYMER

Theodore Clymer has enjoyed a distinguished career as an educator, writer, and a researcher. He has predominately worked in the area of Reading and his writings are widely published and read.

He was born April 2, 1927, in St. Paul, Minnesota, the son of Theodore Frederick and Annette Clymer. On December 30, 1947, he married Lois Brandt and they became parents to two children, Lorna and Todd. Clymer attended Wisconsin State College and the University of Minnesota, where he was awarded the degree of Ph.D. in 1952.

He served as an assistant professor, associate professor, and in 1959, was promoted to professor of Elementary Education and Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota. Prior to this, he had served in the US Navy from 1945 to 1946. He has served on numerous boards and committees of educational organizations and held many offices in these organizations. He has also been presented a Distinguished Alumnus Award from Wisconsin State University.

Clymer has written fairly extensively throughout his career, but his generally accepted standard of utility for phonics rules is perhaps the most notable. While reading research has been a prime consideration in his work, he has also authored several books for children and has been the author or co-author of many reading materials and aids. He has served as the editor of several publications and been a member of editorial boards.

Reference

Evory, Ann, (Ed.) (1985). Contemporary authors.

Dr. Roger Farr

Dr. Farr is a graduate of New York College at Brockport, B.S., 1961; New York College at Buffalo, M.S., 1965; and New York State University at Buffalo Ed.D., 1967.

He is a former classroom teacher, reading consultant, assistant professor and associate professor of education at Indiana University, president of the International Reading Association, and director of the Reading Clinic, Indiana University.

He is a member of the International Reading Association, National Council on Measurement in Education, American Educational Research Association, National Reading Conference, National Conference on Research in English, and Phi Delta Kappa.

Dr. Farr is an author, co-author, and editor of numerous publications, as well as a contributor to professional journals. Reading: What Can Be Measured, International Reading Association, 1970; Measuring Reading Performance, International Reading Association, 1974; Measurement and Evaluation of Reading Procedures, Harcourt, 1970; Grade Levels and Test Scores: What Do They Mean? National Reading Center, 1971 and Reading: Trends and Challenges, NEAP, 1986, are among the books written by Farr that have been sources for reading, evaluation tests, and skills.

Dr. Farr is currently working on a book (with Blanton and Tuinman), Reading Test for the Secondary Grades: A

Review and Evaluation. International Reading Association. He is writing sections for a book on college-adult reading, as well as a book of reading for the International Reading Association.

Dr. Farr resides in Bloomington, Indiana. His office is located at the Reading Clinic, University Schools, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Reference

Evory, Ann. (Ed.) . (1978). Contemporary authors. Detroit: Gale Research Company.

Arthur Heilman

Arthur Heilman was born to William and Margaret Heilman on September 14, 1914, in St. Louis, Missouri. He married Dorothy Thomas and has three children, Thomas, Rosemary, and Bruce. He lives at State College, Pennsylvania, and works at Pennsylvania State University.

Heilman recieved his B.A. at Carthage College and his M.A. and Ph.D. at the University of Iowa. He worked at Michigan State University as the director of the reading laboratory. At the University of Oklahoma he was professor of education and director of the reading laboratory. At Pennsylvania State University, he worked as a professor of education and director of the reading center.

Heilman has written several books about reading development and improvement. He has also contributed articles to reading journals. He is a member of the American Psychological Association, American Civil Liberties, and Phi Kappa Delta.

RREFERENCE

Evory, Ann. (Ed.). (1982). Contemporary authors (rev. ed.). Detroit: Gale Research Co.

William Ivan Martin, Jr.

William Ivan Martin, Jr., better known to classroom teachers as Bill Martin, was born in Hiawatha, Kansas, on March 20, 1916. In 1942, Mr. Martin married Betty Jeanne Buchmann. They had two children, Gary, who is deceased and Danielle. He divorced his wife in 1979.

From 1957-67, Bill Martin acquired his M.A. and Ph.D., served as a teacher of journalism, dramatics, and English, and served as a newspaper editor in the U.S. Air Force. For Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., he worked as an editor and children's textbook and picture book series creator. In 1967, Mr. Martin began a career as a free-lance writer, editor, and lecturer. Bill Martin is a producer of video and tape recordings and works as a folk singer and story-teller. He visits universities and colleges around the United States.

As a children's book series writer, Mr. Martin has contributed numerous children's books. The series included: Bill Martin Instant Reader, Sounds of Language Readers, Bill Martin Freedom Books, Wise Owl, Kin/Der Owl, and Little Owl Books.

REFERENCES

May, Hal. (Ed.). (1986). Contemporary authors. (rev.ed). Detroit: Gale Research Company.

Trosky, Susan, M. (Ed.). (1990). Contemporary authors. (rev.ed). Detroit: Gale Research Company.

Mary Constance McCullough

Mary Constance McCullough was born January 15, 1912, in Indianapolis, Indiana. Mary received her A.B., M.S., and Ph.D. degrees from Vassar College, Butler University, and the University of Minnesota, respectively. Post-doctoral work has been done at Columbia University.

Miss McCullough began her teaching career in the Minneapolis Public Schools in 1935. She has held various positions during her career: editor, statistician, professor of education, and professor emeritus. However, her work experiences have not been limited to the United States. In 1948-49, she was a visiting expert for the Institute for Educational Leadership. This work was done in cooperation with the United States Army in Tokyo, Japan. She has also served as language consultant at Teachers College for a Columbia University team in India.

She is affiliated with the following organizations: National Society for the Study of Education, American Educational Research Association, National Education Association, National Council of Teachers of English, International Reading Association (president, 1974-75), National Conference on Research in English (president, 1961-62), Pi Lambda Theta, Phi Kappa Phi, Delta Phi Upsilon, and Delta Kappa Gamma.

Miss McCullough has co-authored a number of publications, one being the "Ginn Reader" series. She

was editor of Inchworm, Inchworm: Persistent Problems in Reading Education in 1980. Mary is the author of numerous monographs, tests, and articles on reading and languages. Mary McCullough now lives in Walnut Creek, California.

REFERENCE

Evory, A. (Ed.). (1982). Contemporary authors (rev. ed.). Detroit: Gale Research Company.

MONEY, JOHN (WILLIAM)

Money was born July 8, 1921, in Morrinsville, New Zealand. He received his M.A. in 1943, at Victoria University of Wellington. He also received Diploma of Honors in 1944. He completed his graduate study at the University of Pittsburgh in 1947-48. He later received his Ph.D. in 1952, at Harvard University.

He lives on 2104 Madison St., in Baltimore, Maryland, 21205. His office is at John Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore, Maryland.

Since 1945, he has served at John Hopkins Hospital as a teacher in psychology and pediatrics. He served as a psychologist at John Hopkins Hospital from 1955, director of psychohormonal research unit in 1951, and a codirector of biosexual psychohormonal clinic, 1978.

He has received many awards and honors for example: American Association For Sex Educator and Counselors for pioneering research and distinguished service in 1976. He was honored by the Society for Scientific Study of Sex for Service and Education in the field of human sexuality in 1976. He also received the Benjamin Medal of Honor from Erickson Educational Foundation in 1976.

He has several writings such as, The Psychologis Study of Man, 1957, Reading Disability: Progress and Research Needs in Dyslexia, 1962, The Disabled Reader Education of the Dyslexic Child. 1966, editor with G. Williams, Traumatic

Abuse and Neglect of Children at Home, 1980. He has contributions with Harold Michal Smith, editor of Management of the Handicapped Child, 1957. Another book of his with N. Rosenzweign and F. P. Pearsall, editors, in Sex Education for the Health Profession, 1978. Also, L. F. Gross, editor, in The Parent's Guide to Teenagers, 1981. Plus, he has contributed more than 200 articles, reviews, abstracts, and editorials to medical journals and periodicals. Among them are The Reading Teacher, Playboy, St. John's Law Review and American Sociological Review.

He is still involved in writing journal articles and a book on clinical psychohormonal and sexological theory.

John Money stated in California, "I have become internationally known for my work in both psychoendocrinology and the new and growing science of developmental sexology."

He has also done research in learning disability and dyslexia.

References

Contemporary authors. (1986).(rev.ed.). Detroit: Gale Research Company.

Francis Pleasant Robinson

Francis Robinson was born on December 21, 1906, in Danville, Indiana. He married in 1931. He has two children. He received his B. A. from the University of Oregon in 1929; he received his M. A. in 1930 and his PH. D. in psychology in 1932 from the University of Iowa.

He served as an assistant professor at Iowa State University from 1929 to 1932 and the director of clinic from 1929 to 1933. He was professor of psychology and education at Stout Institute from 1933 to 1937. And he also served as the department head from 1934 to 1944. He worked as assistant professor of psychology at Ohio State University from 1937 to 1941. In 1944, he became professor of psychology at Ohio State University.

Robinson served in the military as a Specialist Adjunct, General Officer from 1942 to 1944. He is a member of The American Psychological Association and The American Personel and Guidance Association.

His research includes effectiveness of counseling techniques; nature of study skills and college personel procedures. He published Effective Study and Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling. He co-authored, Psychology in Education.

Reference

_____. (1973). American Men and Women: Social and Behavioral Science. 2. 12th edition. R. Bowker Co. (a xerox educational company). New York and London.

Nila Banton Smith

Nila Banton Smith, a distinguished woman in reading, was born to George Addison and Ella (Banton) Smith on October 10,1890, in Altoona, Michigan.

Nila attended the University of Chicago and Columbia University where she completed her Ph.B., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees in 1932.

After completing her education Nila returned to Michigan where she held the position of supervisor of reading. Nila pursued her career moving around the country to various job opportunities. She held a variety of positions before ending up in California where she died on December 13,1976.

Nila did not marry but devoted her life to her work. Nila was kept quite busy. She not only held university positions, but she was also author of many books such as: American Reading Instruction, The Best in Children's Literature, Reading Instruction for Today's Children, and Get More from Your Reading. Nila was president of the International Reading Association in 1963-64, a member of the Association for Childhood Education, and received a citation merit from the International Reading Association.

REFERENCE

Chles, John F. (Ed.). (1978). Biographical dictionary of American educators. Westpo t, CT: Greenwood Press.

James Trelease

James Joseph Trelease was born March 23, 1941, in Orange, New Jersey. In 1963, he received his B.A. from the University of Massachusetts. He lives in Springfield, Massachusetts, with his wife, Susan. They have two children.

Trelease worked for the Springfield Daily News for eighteen years. First as a sports writer, then as a staff artist. In 1983, he founded Reading Tree Productions and has served as its president. Currently he is a full-time lecturer.

Using the name Jim Trelease, he wrote The Read-Aloud Handbook in 1982, revised edition, 1985. In 1983, he made a film, "Reading Aloud: Motivating Children to Make Books Into Friends, Not Enemies", and an audio cassette, Turning On the Turned Off Reader.

In The Read-Aloud Handbook, Jim Trelease stresses the importance of not only teaching children how to read, but instilling in them the desire to read. Trelease encourages parents and teachers to read aloud to their youngsters.

Reference

Evory, Ann. (Ed.) (1985). Contemporary authors. Detroit: Gale Research Company.

Evelyn Nielsen Wood

Evelyn Nielsen Wood was born in Logan, Utah, on January 8, 1909. Her parents were Elias and Rose Nielsen. Evelyn married Myron Douglas Wood on June 12, 1929. They had one daughter named Carolyn Wood Evans. Mrs. Wood is now living in Tucson, Arizona.

Mrs. Wood's education included a Bachelor of Arts degree from the University of Utah. She received her Master of Arts degree in 1947. Her post graduate work was done at Columbia between 1956-57. She attended the University of Utah again during the years 1957-59.

Many outstanding achievements have been contributed to Mrs. Wood's hard work. She authored and conducted a radio program. She became the founder and originator of the Evelyn Wood Reading Dynamics. At the University of Delaware she began teaching rapid reading. She was a guest lecturer for the National Education Association, the International Reading Association, and at the Texas Christain University. As a faculty member of Brigham Young University, she worked as a reading research specialist. She co-authored many books with Marjory Barrows.

REFERENCE

Who's who of American women. (1981). Chicago: Marquis Publication.

Appendices

Reading Teacher Evaluation Form

	S	U	M	NO
1. Certification				
2. Organized and prepared				
3. States goals and objectives in lesson plans				
4. Use of language				
5. Motivation prior to learning				
6. Visuals relative to the lesson				
7. Exhibits flexibility				
8. Takes into consideration levels of the children				
9. Learning centers are available for motivation and reinforcement				
10. Supplemental materials are relevant to the lesson				
11. Consistent				
12. Familiar with current innovative programs				
13. Monitors students				
14. Assessment covers higher order thinking skills				
15. Keeps accurate, up-to-date records				
16. Professional appearance				
17. Homework is relevant to the lesson				
18. Classroom management				
19. Good rapport with students				
20. Demonstrates higher order questioning skills				

S-satisfactory

U-unsatisfactory

M-Marginal

NO-not observed

Multicultural Titles

Title	Author	Reading Level
Talking Eggs	San Souci, R.	K-3
Lon Po Po: A Red Riding Hood From China	Young, E.	1-4
Five Chinese Brothers	Bishop, C.	K-3
Black Pearl	O'Dell, S.	5-6
Remembering Box	Clifford, E.	4-7
Annie and the Old One	Miles, M.	K-3
Indian in the Cupboard	Reid Banks, L.	4-7
Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears	Aardema, V.	3+
Island of the Blue Dolphins	O'Dell, S.	4-7
Call It Courage	Sperry, A.	5-9
Ashanti to Zulu: African Traditions	Musgrove, M.	K-3
Hundred-Penny Box	Mathis, S.	1-4
Sing Down the Moon	O'Dell, S.	5+
Talking Earth	George, J.	6+
Perrault's Fairy Tales	Perrault, C.	3-6
Sounder	Armstrong, W.	6-8
Why the Sun and the Moon Live in the Sky	Dayrell, E.	K-3
Anne Frank: Life in Hiding	Hurwitz, J.	4-7
Secret of the Indian	Reid Banks, L.	4-7
Iktomi and the Berries	Goble, P.	K-3
Gobbles!	Keats, E.	K-1
Stone Soup	McGovern, A.	K-3

Professional Journals and Books

Journals

Creative Classroom
Box 53148
Boulder, CO 80322-3148
Bi-monthly
Publisher-Nina B. Link

Highlights
P.O. Box 269
Columbus, OH 43272-0002
Monthly
Publisher-Highlights for Children

Journal of Reading
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714-8139

Language Arts
National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Yrbana, IL 61801
Monthly
Publisher-National Council of Teachers

Learning
P.O. Box 2580
Boulder, CO 80322
Monthly
Publisher-David J. Bliss

Phi Delta Kappan
P.O. Box 789
Bloomington, IN 47402
Monthly
Publisher-Robert E. McDaniel
Phone: 812-339-1156

Ranger Rick
8925 Leesburg Pike
Vienna, VA 22184-0001
Monthly
Publisher-National Wildlife Association

Reading: Exploration and Discovery
LRA Association
9466 Redwood Drive
Baton Rouge, LA 70814
September-May
Publisher-LRA

Reading Research Quarterly
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
Newark, DE 19711
Quarterly
Publisher-IRA

Sports Illustrated for Kids
P.O. Box 830609
Birmingham, AL 35283-0609
Monthly
Publisher-The Time Incorporated Magazine Company

The Reading Teacher
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
Newark, DE 19714-8139
September-May
Publisher-IRA

Books

A Cluster Approach to Elementary Vocabulary Instruction
Marzano (1988)
ISBN 0-87207-232-0

Annual Summary of Investigations
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19711
Publisher-IRA (1980)

Becoming a Nation of Readers
P.O. Box 2774
Station A
Champaign, IL 61825-2774
Publisher-U.S. Department of Education (1984)

Children's Literature in the Reading Program
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714-8139
ISBN 0-87207-782-9
Editor-Cullinan (1987)

Children's Writing: An Approach for the Primary Grades
Publishers-Sealey, Sealey, Millmore (1979)
ISBN 0-87207-935-x

Developing Active Readers: Ideas for Parents, Teachers, and Librarians
Editors-Monson & McClenathan (1979)
ISBN 0-87207-727-6

Developing Literacy: Young Children's Use of Language
Editors-Parker & Davis (1983)
ISBN 0-87207-531-1

Fusing Reading With Content
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714-8139
Author-Eleanor Thomas

Globe Book Company
Simon Schuster
4350 Equity Drive
P.O. Box 2649
Columbus, OH 43272-2611
Catalog
Publisher-Globe Book

Good Reading for the Disadvantage Reader
Champaign, IL
Publisher-Garrard Publishing Company (1970)

Learning to Read: The Great Debate
Author-Jeanne S. Chall
Publisher-McGraw-Hill Book Company (1967)

New Directions in Reading Instruction
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19714-8139
Publishers-Monahon & Hinson (1988)
ISBN 0-87207-796-9

Perma Bound Books
Vandalia Road
Jacksonville, IL 62650
Phone: 1-800-637-6581

Teaching Main Idea Comprehension
IRA
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, DE 19711
Editor-Baumann (1986)
ISBN 0-87207-968-6

The New Hooked on Books
200 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10016
Publisher-Berkley Publishing (1976)

89

Reading Supplementary Materials

Material	Procedures	Grade(s)	Purpose
Controlled Reading Skill Development	Educational Developmental Laboratories	K-12	To improve reading fluency in the development of special reading skills and in vocabulary.
Reading Skill Builder	Reader's Digest	1-6	To promote comprehension; provide reading interest and enjoyment; build vocabulary
Crime Fighters	Bowmar/Noble Publishers	4-6	To reinforce comprehension skills, to promote the recognition of new vocabulary words; to allow reading for personal enjoyment and interest
Foundation Phonics Kit	Open Court Publishing Co.	1	To teach sounds that represent written symbols
Studybooks	Ginn & Co. Series	1-6	To improve comprehension, study skills, vocabulary development, introduce literature and life skills
Words Are Important	Hammond Incorporated	Ungraded	To promote word identification, usage, part-of-speech, context, decoding
Reading Skills	The Associated Press Newspaper	middle to high school	To learn how to use newspaper in research and acquaint persons to the newspaper
The Basketball Reading Kit	Bowman/Noble Publishers, Inc.	middle to high school	To improve reading comprehension with high interest level stories about basketball

Material	Procedures	Grade(s)	Purpose
The Little Red Hen	Scholastic Big Book	Ages 5-8	To improve comprehension by enriching children's oral language development and writing skills
How to be a Better Test Taker	Scholastic Skills Book	All levels	To improve test taking skills
Sprint Reading Skills Program	Scholastic Book Service	Level 1-	Improve vocabulary and comprehension
Building Vocabulary	Globe Book Company	Level A-	Improve vocabulary skills and build a higher level of vocabulary
Reading Beyond the Basal Series	Perfection Form Company	Level 1-6	To develop higher level thinking skills and enthusiasm about reading
Vocabulary Skills: Meaning Through Structure & Context	Scholastic Skills	Book A-F Grades 1-6	Develop vocabulary
Dictionary Skills	Scholastic Skills	Book A-C Grades 3-5	Enhance dicitonary skills
Phonic Skills	Scholastic Skills	Book A-F Grades 1-3	Develop phonic skills
Word Mastery with Puzzles & Games	Scholastic Skills	Book A-C Grades 1-6	Develop word recognition, spelling, and vocabulary

General Reading Tests			
Authors	Title	Grade Level	Publisher
Balow, Irving H. Prescott, George	Metropolitan Achievement Tests: Reading Tests	2-9	Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
Gates, Arthur I. MacGinitie, Walter	Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test	1-9	Teachers College Press
Tiegs, Ernest W. Clark, Willis W.	California Achievement Test	1-12	McGraw-Hill
Diagnostic Reading Tests			
Durrell, Donald	Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty	1-6	Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
Kamm, K. Miles, P. Stewart, D. M. Van Blaricom, V. Harris, M. L.	Wisconsin Tests of Reading Skill Development: Word Attack	K-6	NCS Interpretive Scoring Systems
Karlsen, Bjorn Madden, Richard Gardner, Eric	Stanford Diagnostic Reading Tests	1-13	Psychological Corporation

Suggested Topics For Jr. High Teachers

Short term goal:
1. TLW be motivated to read.
2. TLW acquire methods of reading to increase comprehension.
3. TLW acquire reading skills to increase comprehension.

Long term goal:
1. TLW obtain the ability to READ.

1. SQ3R-Robinson
   (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review)

2. Discuss Pre-Reading Skills. Read headings, captions, bold face, etc. before beginning reading for comprehension.

3. Sequencing: Use of photography and use of cartoon strips.

4. Teach content area skills such as symbols, charts, graphs, tables, special vocabulary, etc.

5. Motivation-motivate by reading to students, showing students that you enjoy reading.

These topics cover areas from motivation to comprehension. These areas give ability for students to read anything they pick up such as: newspaper, atlas, telephone book, etc.

Suggested Topics For Jr. High Teachers

Short term goal:
1. TLW be motivated to read.
2. TLW acquire methods of reading to increase comprehension.
3. TLW acquire reading skills to increase comprehension.

Long term goal:
1. TLW obtain the ability to READ.

1. SQ3R-Robinson
   (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review)

2. Discuss Pre-Reading Skills. Read headings, captions, bold face, etc. before beginning reading for comprehension.

3. Sequencing: Use of photography and use of cartoon strips.

4. Teach content area skills such as symbols, charts, graphs, tables, special vocabulary, etc.

5. Motivation-motivate by reading to students, showing students that you enjoy reading.

These topics cover areas from motivation to comprehension. These areas give ability for students to read anything they pick up such as: newspaper, atlas, telephone book, etc.

106. READABILITY GRAPH

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The Readability Graph is included on the next page so you will have it on hand when you need it. Use it to help judge the difficulty level of the materials your students use so that you can better match reading selections to students' reading abilities.

1. Randomly select three sample passages and count out exactly 100 words beginning with the beginning of a sentence. Count proper nouns, initializations, and numerals.

2. Count the number of sentences in the hundred words estimating length of the fraction of the last sentence to the nearest 1/10th.

3. Count the total number of syllables in the 100-word passage. If you don't have a hand counter available, an easy way is to put a mark above every syllable over one in each word, and then when you get to the end of the passage, count the number of marks and add 100. Small calculators also can be used as counters by pushing numeral "1", then push the "+" sign for each word or syllable when counting.

4. Enter graph with *average* sentence length and *average* number of syllables; plot a dot where the two lines intersect. The area where a dot is plotted will give you the approximate grade level.

5. If a great deal of variability is found in syllable count or sentence count, putting more samples into the average is desirable.

6. A word is defined as a group of symbols with a space on either side; thus, "Joe," "IRA," "1945," and "&" are each one word.

7. A *syllable* is defined as a phonetic syllable. Generally, there are as many syllables as vowel sounds. For example, *stopped* is one syllable and *wanted* is two syllables. When counting syllables for numerals and initializations, count one syllable for each symbol. For example, *1945* is four syllables, and *IRA* is three syllables, and & is one syllable.

EXAMPLE:

	Syllables	*Sentences*
1st Hundred Words	124	6.6
2nd Hundred Words	141	5.5
3rd Hundred Words	158	6.8
AVERAGE	141	6.3

READABILITY 7th GRADE (see dot plotted on graph)

See Also List 108, Writeability Checklist.

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY —EXTENDED

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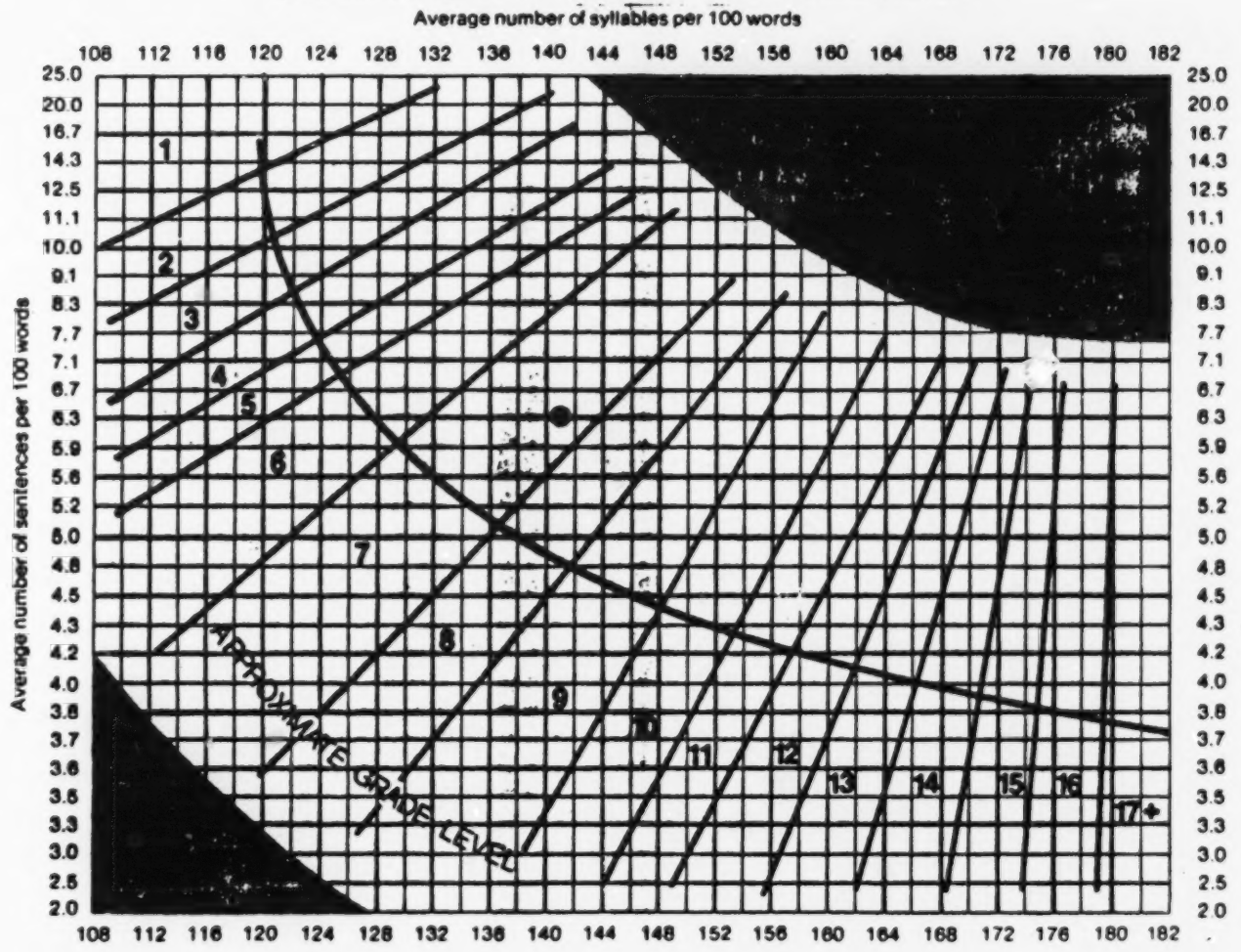

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